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ABSTRACT

A study analyzed past and present United States initiatives for promoting equal employment opportunity and wage equality for women. It was determined that, during the past 20 years, the United States Government has established the legal procedures to combat inequities in educational opportunities and employment-related practices. While these procedures have effected some improvements, the problems of occupational segregation and its resultant lower earnings for women persist. Other issues affecting the full utilization of women in the work force include protective labor legislation, inequities in education, lack of adequate child care, lack of adequate alternative work patterns, the scope of unemployment, involuntary part-time employment, and limited unemployment assistance. Despite outreach efforts to groups with special needs, such as migrant and seasonal farmworkers and minority women, members of these groups continue to lag behind their white counterparts in most socioeconomic areas. Analysis of the effectiveness of equal opportunity initiatives reveals that, for the future, equality for women in the workplace will depend on continued reduction of occupational segregation of women. (The second half of this report consists of 18 tables of data.) (MN)

Equal Employment Opportunity for Women: U.S. Policies

United States Report for the
Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD)
Working Party Number 6 on the Role of Women in the Economy
Paris, France

U.S. Department of Labor
Raymond J. Donovan, Secretary

Women's Bureau
Lenora Cole-Alexander, Director

1982

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FOREWORD

The Women's Bureau is pleased to share the information in this report which describes U.S. policies to promote equality of employment opportunity for women. The report was presented at the meeting of the Manpower and Social Affairs Committee's Working Party Number 6 on the Role of Women in the Economy, sponsored by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), June 1982 in Paris, France.

The Bureau had a significant role in that meeting, which was part of a continuing series focusing on women's employment in the 24 OECD-member countries. These international meetings provide an opportunity to discuss issues and exchange information about developments taking place to promote the status of women in our respective countries. They also stimulate further action and contribute toward mutual understanding of the concerns we share.

This report describes the U.S. legal machinery that promotes women's equality in employment, and points to issues still affecting the full utilization of women in the work force. It also summarizes outreach efforts to population groups with special needs. An apperdix contains a number of tables providing statistical data on the labor force activity of women, as well as on the occupations, earnings, and educational attainment of women workers.

We want to emphasize that this report does not intend to cover all of the wide-ranging developments and actions occurring as a result of the efforts of government and nongovernmental groups. We hope, however, that the information presented here leads to a better understanding of the policies impacting on women's employment and the current status of U.S. women workers.

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INTRODUCTION

The equality of individual rights and opportunity has long been a national commitment of the United States and continues to have the firm support of the President. In addition to the basic guarantees and protection embodied in the Constitution, the commitment is expressed in more than 100 Federal statutes which address such areas as employment, housing, voting, education, public accommodations, access to credit, and jury service. Those laws affecting the employment opportunities and economic interest of women remain basically as they were described in the United States report for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) High Level Conference on the Employment of Women, April 1980, Paris, France. They set the standard for equal opportunity in public and private employment, training programs, and federally assisted education programs. They also prohibit discrimination based on race, color, religion, national origin, age, or sex in pay, opportunities for promotion, and all terms, conditions, and privileges of employment.

Much of the progress made in realizing the national commitment has been the result of both Government enforcement and the voluntary efforts of individuals, private businesses, and institutions. At present more emphasis is being placed on voluntary compliance, a reduction in regulatory requirements and paperwork, and technical assistance. Business leaders are becoming more involved in identifying skill shortages in the labor market and in planning training programs geared to jobs in the private sector. The private sector initiatives are encouraged with a view toward strengthening the economy and providing employment and training opportunities to all segments of the population.

Specific initiatives which the U.S. Government is undertaking to improve equal opportunity programs include:

-- greater involvement of State and local governments in assuring equality of opportunity, 1/

-- incentives for voluntary compliance,

-- increased technical assistance,

-- new leadership and improved management.

1/ Special Analysis J, "Civil Rights Activities," The Budget of the United States Government, 1983, Office of Management and Budget, Executive Office of the President, February 1982.

The objective of this report to the OECD is to discuss past and present U.S. initiatives for promoting equal employment opportunity and wage equality for women, and to examine methods of measuring their effectiveness, such as monitoring changes in the employment situation of working women.

I. THE LEGAL MACHINERY TO PROMOTE EQUALITY OF EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY

The system used to achieve growth in equal employment opportunities for minorities and women covers many issues which affect these groups when they are seeking employment, while they are employed, and when they retire. From the U.S. Employment Service, which assists people looking for jobs, to the Social Security Administration, which administers retirement funds, the United States Government forbids discrimination in hiring and requires equal employment opportunities to ensure the full participation of women and minorities in the nation's economic life.

The U.S. Government is examining all Federal programs designed to provide equality of opportunity, and, as a result, there has been renewed emphasis on protecting rights guaranteed individuals by the Constitution, and on avoiding discrimination by the Government itself. This reexamination and renewal of Federal equality of opportunity has not been without controversy, since not every program or regulation has been found to justify its cost or the burdens it imposes. Not every policy has been found to promote the broader equities it seeks or the consensus it requires for success. But this ongoing review has not strayed from its intent to pursue and strengthen the national commitment to overcome discrimination. 2/

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is the Federal agency created in 1965 to administer and enforce Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. EEOC has rendered most employment discrimination illegal on a nationwide basis. It receives and investigates job discrimination complaints which may be filed by an employee, a group of employees, job applicants, or organizations on behalf of aggrieved individuals. In addition, the 5 commissioners, who are appointed by the President, may, and do, initiate charges. A part of the EEOC complaint resolution process includes deferral to States which have equal opportunity laws comparable to Title VII. As of 1975, 36 States, including the District of Columbia, and 14 local fair employment practice agencies had the authority to grant or seek relief from discrimination prohibited by the Civil Rights Act, as amended; by 1981 the number had risen to 69. The complaints filed with these agencies provide information to the EEOC on the types of discrimination experienced by women and minorities and the remedies needed to ensure equal opportunity. The deferral of authority to State and local agencies has also provided for greater coverage for the affected classes, defined under Title VII as sex, race, color, religion, or national origin.

2/ Ibid.

EEOC monitors employer activities in the area of equal opportunity through the annual reports required of the larger private employers (100 or more employees). These reports set forth the makeup of the work force under 9 major occupational categories for each of 4 minority groups--Black, Hispanic, Asian/Pacific Islander, and American Indian/Alaskan Native. Data in the reports are the only source of comprehensive (annual) employment statistics by occupational categories for minorities and women in private industry, and are presented for the nation as a whole, each State, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, and smaller geographic areas, such as counties. These data have been used by EEOC to target employers for investigation of systemic discrimination; decisions to investigate systemic issues are made by EEOC commissioners.

The EEOC also enforces the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Age Discrimination in Employment Act. The Equal Pay Act prohibits employers from paying different wages, because of sex, to women and men doing substantially equal (not necessarily identical) work in the same establishment. Employers also are prohibited by the Equal Pay Act from reducing wages of either sex to comply with the law, and labor organizations are forbidden to cause employers to violate the act. The Age Discrimination in Employment Act prohibits employers, employment agencies, and unions from employment practices discriminating against persons 40-70 years of age. (There is no upper age limit with respect to employment by the Federal Government.) This protection under the law can be particularly important to women reentering the work force after an extended period of full-time family responsibility.

The Office of Federal Contract Compliance Programs (OFCCP) in the Department of Labor monitors and enforces the compliance of Federal contractors under Executive Order (E.O.) 11246, as amended. The order, issued by the President in 1965, prohibits discrimination in employment and requires most Federal contractors to take affirmative action to overcome special barriers to employment for minorities and women. Separate laws administered by OFCCP require affirmative action by Federal contractors to employ handicapped workers and veterans. Affirmative action usually involves self-evaluation and steps to correct past practices having a discriminatory effect. Through its 10 regional and 59 area offices, OFCCP reviews Federal contractors' employment policies in an effort to assure that firms profiting from Government business do, in fact, provide equal access to employment opportunities for women and minorities. The Federal Government uses its procurement power to further equal employment opportunity. Failure to carry out the mandate of E.O. 11246 can result in contract cancellation and debarment from consideration for future Federal contracts. Since a significantly large proportion of U.S. industrial employers are Government contractors, the Executive order is viewed as a powerful instrument for change.

Equal opportunity in education. Three legislative initiatives that seek to promote equality of opportunity for women are administered by the Department of Education: Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the Women's Educational Equity Act of the Education Amendments of 1974 (reauthorized in 1978), and the Vocational Education Act as amended by the Education Amendments of 1976. The passage of these acts was the result of effective programs developed and carried out by women's groups during the 1970's. Highlights follow.

-- Title IX prohibits sex discrimination in all federally assisted education programs, including elementary and secondary school, college and university, and vocational education programs. The law is far-reaching in its application and covers employment and all types of education, counseling, facilities, and extracurricular activities, including athletic programs.

-- The Women's Educational Equity Act provides grants, contracts, and technical assistance for the development of materials and model programs that are designed to achieve educational equity for girls and women of various racial, ethnic, age, regional, and socioeconomic groups. Under the reauthorized Act, the program also provides grants for projects of local significance to help school districts and other institutions meet the requirements of Title IX. In addition, the Act established a National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs, which makes policy recommendations to the Federal Government on educational equity for women and girls. Its mandate addresses all Federal policies and programs affecting women's education.

-- The Vocational Education Act mandates activities to eliminate sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination in federally funded vocational education programs and requires each State to employ a full-time sex equity coordinator to ensure the elimination of bias and occupational segregation in vocational programs.

The Department of Education and those Federal agencies that disburse funds for education and training programs are responsible for issuing regulations governing their grants. Overall, the Department of Justice is responsible for coordinating the implementation of Title IX.

Equal opportunity in the Federal service. In March 1972, Public Law 92-261, the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, brought Federal employees and agencies under the equal employment opportunity provision of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and gave the Civil Service Commission (now the Office of Personnel Management) additional enforcement powers to insure that all personnel actions in Government are free from discrimination. The Office of Personnel Management regulations implementing the law require that Federal agencies designate a Federal Women's Program Manager to advise the Director of Equal Employment Opportunity on matters affecting the advancement of women employed by the U.S. Government. This law, along with a series of Executive orders and the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, requires each Federal agency to take affirmative action in recruiting, hiring, and promoting women and minorities, as well as to provide training and educational opportunities to its employees through "in-house training," local schools, and universities. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission is responsible for overseeing Federal affirmative action efforts and for resolving discrimination complaints in the Federal Government.

The White House Office of Intergovernmental Affairs has undertaken a new initiative to encourage State Governors to review the language of all State laws and have any aspects of discrimination removed. A mechanism has been established, coordinated by White House staff, to work with Governors of each of the States and their designated staff toward this end. In 1981 representatives from the States met with the President to discuss the process and returned

to their States with plans to participate. The Women's Bureau has provided staff assistance to this effort by producing a Working Paper on Studies on Sex Discrimination in State Codes.

The Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor advances the economic and legal status of women. The Bureau's Congressional mandate, set out in the Act establishing the Bureau in 1920, is "to formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment." Through its 10 regional offices, the Bureau provides a communication exchange for self-help efforts devised by women with employment-related problems, voluntary solutions by employers, and policy advice to State and local officials. The Bureau fosters a dialogue between women in the local communities and policy-making officials through conferences and meetings sponsored by regional and national offices of the Bureau. Since 1978, the Bureau has contracted with community-based organizations to carry out model demonstration projects on effective techniques for recruiting and placing women in higher paying jobs. Through technical assistance provided by the Bureau, successful models are being utilized by employers and State and local officials to enhance opportunities for women workers.

Evaluation and coordination of Federal agency programs. Statutory and regulatory provisions, and the policies and programs for implementing them, are regularly reviewed and assessed by the President and Cabinet officers, Congress, and members of the public. Additional steps are being instituted to reduce the burden on employers.

In a major initiative to minimize regulatory duplication and conflict, and to insure well-reasoned Government regulations, the Reagan Administration established a Presidential Task Force on Regulatory Relief. This initiative gave the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), in the Executive Office of the President, broad regulatory review authority, including the authority to identify duplicative, overlapping, and conflicting rules and to require interagency consultation to minimize overlap and conflict. In addition, procedures were established to assess the need for, and consequences of, proposed Government action and to estimate the benefits and costs of agency regulations. As a regular part of its mission, OMB during the budget planning cycle reviews the work of the agencies involved in equal opportunity.

In the past, policies that evolved out of separate contexts sometimes resulted in inconsistencies in enforcement practices among the various Federal agencies. Consequently, lead agencies were identified and given the authority to coordinate activities. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission was given responsibility in the area of equal employment, while the Department of Justice (Attorney General) was given responsibility for laws prohibiting discrimination in Federal programs and programs receiving Federal financial assistance.

The General Accounting Office, as an independent agency in the Executive Branch, assists Congress in its oversight functions by providing legal and auditing services and by recommending more effective administration and

coordination of the laws. The U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, an independent, bipartisan agency established in 1957, regularly studies developments related to equal protection under the Constitution and appraises Federal laws and policies with respect to discrimination because of race, color, religion, sex, age, handicap, or national origin. It submits findings of hearings or special studies to the President, Congress, and the public. Specialized bodies such as the National Commission for Employment Policy and the Federal Unemployment Insurance Advisory Council evaluate the effectiveness of Federal programs in their areas of responsibility and make recommendations to the Secretary of Labor. Frequently representatives of Federal agencies and of private sector groups, such as trade unions, business associations, and nonprofit voluntary organizations, are appointed to such bodies; the private sector groups often issue their own evaluative reports as well. 3/

II. ISSUES AFFECTING THE FULL UTILIZATION OF WOMEN IN THE WORK FORCE

Protective labor legislation for women was enacted by the individual States in the early part of this century to protect women from severe hardship at a time when strong labor standards for men and women had not gained support in either Congress or the courts. As Federal labor laws for men and women evolved, such as rights related to wages, unions, and safety and health, the view changed toward sex-specific labor protections. Hour limitations posed problems for women who did not want restrictions to exclude them from overtime work, night work, and certain higher paying occupations, including supervisory positions. In the years following enactment of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, State protective laws for women were generally superseded by the equal opportunity requirements of the Federal law. States generally repealed limitations on weight lifting and prohibitions against working in mines or other occupations once thought inappropriate for women. In other instances, court decisions or administrative practice made such laws inoperable. To the extent that some employers still believe that such laws are in effect, the former laws and the practices they engendered may limit employment opportunities for some women.

Inequities in education. Although public schools in the United States have been coeducational for more than a century, the structures, behaviors, and policies that reinforce traditional sex roles and limit the opportunities and aspirations of girls and women still prevail throughout the educational system--from preschool to graduate school, in vocational education, and in adult education programs. Schools frequently have discouraged girls and women from considering courses and careers in nontraditional fields, particularly in mathematics, science, and vocational education. Curriculums and textbooks also have perpetuated sex biases. Progress has been made toward the goal of Title IX which prohibits sex discrimination in all federally assisted education programs, but problems still remain.

3/ Ibid. The Special Analysis J, "Civil Rights Activities," presents a review of the enforcement of equal employment opportunity laws for 1980-1981.

Women continue to have limited access to higher education at the graduate and professional school level and in vocational education. And when access is granted, women are still concentrated in traditional fields of study. Few schools encourage or provide funds for women in athletics (interscholastic sports) including sports scholarships. While women dominate the field of education, they account for only a small proportion of the employees in policy-making and management positions--school principals, chairpersons of academic departments, presidents of colleges and universities, and district superintendents. Moreover, women's tenure, promotions, and salary increases lag behind men, and their relative earnings have been declining in recent years, according to a report of the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs: Title IX: The Half Full, Half Empty Glass, a 1981 publication.

Lack of adequate child care remains a significant problem for working women even though the need for such support services is steadily increasing. In 1978, the Women's Bureau cosponsored a conference on Community Solutions for Child Care with the National Manpower Institute which led to a renewed nationwide awareness of the need for and the economic viability of affordable child care. Business and industry are being encouraged to support and become involved in issues relating to the dual responsibility of work and families, particularly the need for child care. The White House Conference on Families in 1980 highlighted the concern for child care. A number of community-sponsored conferences have been held on employers' options in providing child care services and the exploration of child care as an employment-related benefit program.

The Economic Recovery Tax Act of 1981 provides an increase in the tax credit allowed for child and dependent care expenses related to the earnings of taxpayers after December 31, 1981. The new law provides a sliding scale allowing low-income taxpayers to take a tax credit for a higher percentage of their child and dependent care expenses than high-income taxpayers. In addition, when the employer provides child care, the cost will not be included in the employee's gross income.

Lack of adequate alternative work patterns. Part-time work, flexible work schedules, and shared jobs are important to many women who have both work and home responsibilities such as child care. As yet the use of alternative work schedules is not widespread, although a number of major U.S. firms have adopted or are experimenting with some aspect of these different approaches. A 1979 survey for the U.S.Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (since then renamed the Department of Health and Human Services) showed that 17 percent of the responding firms, which employed 212,256 workers, had adopted part-time options policies. A study, New Work Schedules for a Changing Society, published in 1981 by the Work in America Institute, Inc., found 9.5 million full-time workers on flexible work schedules and compressed work weeks. An additional 11.8 million workers hold voluntary, permanent part-time jobs. Thus, nearly one-fifth of the labor force now functions under some alternative work pattern.

Data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics indicate that, for the nation as a whole, flexitime was somewhat less prevalent among female than male workers in May 1980. Among full-time, nonfarm wage and salary workers, 10 percent of the women (compared with 13 percent of the men) had this alternative available

to them. Women continue to account for about 70 percent of all workers on voluntary part-time work schedules.

Scope of unemployment. The 1981 annual average unemployment rate was 7.9 percent among women compared with 7.4 percent among men. Men have accounted for most (nearly 70 percent) of the rise in unemployment since 1979, when unemployment was at its most recent low. The unemployment rate for women has historically been higher than that of men. However, during periods of economic downturn the gap narrows, reflecting employment cutbacks in the more cyclically sensitive goods-producing industries in which men are more likely to work than women. The number of unemployed women reached 3.7 million in 1981 compared with 4.6 million men, up from the prerecession low of about 3 million for each group.

Involuntary part-time employment. Although there is no official measure of underemployment, involuntary part-time work serves as an indication of some of the workers in such a group. Persons working part-time for economic reasons include those working less than full-time because of slack work, material shortages, repairs to plant or equipment, start or termination of a job during the survey week, and inability to find full-time work. In 1981, about 6 percent of all employed women were working part-time for economic reasons compared with 4 percent of all working men. By the first quarter of 1982, the number of workers on part-time for economic reasons stood at 5.4 million (not seasonally adjusted) --2.9 million women and 2.6 million men--a record since the statistical series began in 1970.

Nonparticipants in the labor force. Statistics are collected, analyzed, and published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics on persons not in the labor force, nonparticipants. Among the 61.5 million nonparticipants in 1981, about 5.8 million--3.9 million women and 1.9 million men--reported that they would like a job "now." Most cited school attendance, ill health, or home responsibilities as the reason which prevented them from looking for work. "Discouraged" workers make up an even smaller, but significant, proportion of nonparticipants in general, and of those who want a job "now" in particular. Over 1 million nonparticipants--700,000 women and 400,000 men--wanted a job now but were not looking for work because they felt they would be unable to find a job. These discouraged workers are not classified as unemployed because they do not meet the labor market test of having searched for work during the month prior to the survey interview. Typically, about a third of all "discouraged" workers cite personal problems--factors such as age or lack of education--as the reason they feel they would not be able to find a job; the remainder cite job market factors. The size of the latter group tends to respond to cyclical pressures, while the former usually shows little cyclical movement.

Limited unemployment assistance. In the United States, many employers rely on the seniority system advocated by unions and workers as a fair system for deciding who is to be on layoff in periods of economic downturn. At the same time, the United States has a Federal-State cooperative system of unemployment compensation for covered workers who are laid off. Nevertheless, seniority systems are viewed as having a greater adverse impact on women who are more likely to have fewer years of uninterrupted employment than men.

To address the needs of unemployed workers, the Federal Government indirectly assists employers in creating employment and training opportunities for certain groups of workers, usually the disadvantaged, including women, minorities, and "displaced homemakers." This assistance comes through various tax credit mechanisms and the funding of economic development projects in chronically depressed local areas. Recently proposed urban enterprise zone legislation would provide for zones where employers and employees in specified economically depressed urban areas would be the beneficiaries of a wide range of tax reductions, credits, and other benefits to attract private investment to these areas.

Significant tax incentives for job training and job creation include the Targeted Job Tax Credit (TJTC) and on-the-job training (OJT) administered through the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), in effect through September 1982. Contracts for OJT are negotiated with employers, where the local prime sponsors under CETA subsidize wages and training program expenses of employers providing services for CETA targeted groups which include women. Recent legislative proposals to revise CETA would provide the private sector a much larger role in local planning and delivery of employment and training programs. There is much debate over the specific programs and their future funding levels, but the need for private sector initiatives and cooperation in any training program is viewed as a "must."

At the present time, most direct assistance to job seekers in the private sector reflects the activities of the State Employment Service offices (public employment offices). They do not, generally, provide for direct travel expenses for relocation, as some private firms do. However, some public employment and training programs focused on low-income families and workers do have job assistance and followup procedures incorporated. In addition, the State Employment Service has explored the use of community-based organizations as a way of reaching both job applicants and employers who need workers. Also, the Federal Government has put in place a Private Sector Initiatives Program to get employers and unions more involved in developing local solutions to the employment needs of the community.

III. OUTREACH TO GROUPS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Migrant and seasonal farmworkers. Estimates of the number of migrant and seasonal farmworkers vary by inclusiveness of definition, ranging to a high of more than 1 million workers. The U.S. Department of Agriculture defines migrant workers as persons who cross county lines and stay overnight to do farm work. According to that definition, data from the hired farm workers supplement to the Current Population Survey found 217,000 migrant workers in 1979, of which about 52,000 or nearly one-quarter were women. By race-ethnic origin, about 25,000 were Hispanic, 23,000 were white and 3,000 were black women.

The U.S. Department of Labor programs for seasonal farmworkers authorized by Title III, section 303 of CETA, serve both migrant and locally employed farmworkers in rural and urban settings. These programs were designed to alleviate the chronic unemployment and underemployment of farmworkers and to improve their status in the economy. The number of women newly enrolled in

CETA programs for fiscal year 1980 was somewhat less than 10,000. 4/ Women comprise about 40 percent of all migrant and seasonal farmworkers served by CETA.

Minority women. The Women's Bureau has pioneered in the development of unique demonstration projects that effectively meet the special needs of minority women, including blacks, American Indians, Hispanics, and Asian/Pacific Americans. The following review of the employment situation of black and Hispanic women looks at the current employment status of these women. These are the two largest minority groups in the United States in terms of population. Data for the other minority ethnic groups are largely derived from the Decennial Census data. The 1980 results are not available in the detail required for analysis.

Black women. The population of black females reached 14.0 million in 1980, up 2.1 million from 1970, with about three-quarters of all black women residing in metropolitan areas, and more than half living in central cities within metropolitan areas. Black women have made improvements in most socio-economic situations during the 1970's, but they still are not as well off as their white counterparts. Black women are more likely than white women to be unemployed, to be overrepresented in low-paying jobs, to increasingly assume the role of maintaining a family with children to support, and to account for a disproportionate share of the poor. In addition, black women still have a lower life expectancy than white women--72.6 years compared with 77.3 years in 1976--even though the life expectancy differential between black and white women has narrowed by 1.5 years since 1970.

The jobless rates for black women are unusually high due to the extremely high rates among black teenagers 16 to 19 years old and young women 20 to 24 years old. The number of unemployed black women was 840,000 in 1981, reflecting a rate of 15.6 percent. The unemployment rate among black teenagers was several times the rate of their white counterparts--42.2 percent versus 16.6 percent in 1981; for women 20 to 24 years of age, the jobless rates were 26.4 percent among blacks and 9.1 percent among whites.

Despite the poor unemployment situation of black women compared with white women, and of young black women particularly, there has been some improvement in the occupational status of those who were employed, reflecting their strong and continued labor force experience and increasing educational attainment. Their labor force participation rate in 1981 was 53 percent, somewhat higher than that of all women. The median years of school completed by employed black women was 12.4 years in 1979, compared with 12.7 for employed white women.

4/ Employment and Training Report of the President. Including reports by the U.S. Department of Labor, the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, and the U.S. Department of Education, transmitted to the Congress 1981.

The proportion of black women in white-collar work increased sharply between 1972 and 1981 (from 38 to 51 percent), as many of the younger, better-educated women found jobs in clerical, professional, and technical occupations. Over the same period, the proportion of black women in service occupations dropped from 48 to 31 percent, largely because of the dramatic drop of women in private household occupations--an area where many black women have historically found employment. These trends reflect the fact that younger, better-educated black women looked for and found "higher-paying" jobs.

During the 1970's, the median income of black women who worked year-round full-time approached income parity with their white counterparts. The annual income for year-round full-time employed black women rose from $7,079 in 1970 to $10,914 in 1980; comparative income for white women was $8,640 to $11,702 over the same period. Despite black women's near parity of income with white women, black family income ($12,674) in 1980 was considerably less than that of white families ($21,904). Moreover, although the earnings of black women account for a larger share of family income than the earnings of white women, black men working full-time year-round in 1980 earned substantially less ($13,874) than white men ($19,719).

Hispanic women. Females of Hispanic origin numbered 6.6 million in March of 1980. The largest specific Hispanic group was of Mexican origin (3.9 million), followed by women of Puerto Rican origin (985,000), Central and South American origin (561,000), and--the smallest group--Cuban origin (417,000). The remaining 829,000 females were not classified as to national origin. (Data are not compared with earlier years because of large sampling variability and differences in classification since the 1970 Census.) The socioeconomic position of Hispanic-origin women differs according to the country of origin, and is substantially different from that of non-Hispanic women, particularly in educational attainment.

Among all adult women of Hispanic origin (20 years old and over), nearly 50 percent participated in work activities in 1981, somewhat lower than the rate for all adult women--52 percent. The overall rate obscures differences in participation among the various Hispanic ethnic groups, and mainly reflects the lower rate of women of Puerto Rican origin compared with the others. At 37 percent, women of Puerto Rican origin had the lowest labor force participation rate in 1981, compared with a high of 54 percent for women of Cuban origin, and 50 percent for women of Mexican origin. Probably of more significance than traditional family roles are the divergent age distributions which have a strong effect on labor force participation. The median age of women of Puerto Rican origin is lower than the median age of women of Cuban origin. Because of their youth, Puerto Rican women are more likely to have young children, preventing them from participating in the labor force.

Unemployment for Hispanic women moved down from 1975 recession highs but is still higher than that for all women and somewhat lower than that for nonwhite (largely black) women workers. At 9.5 percent in 1981, joblessness among adult Hispanic women workers edged up from the prerecession low of 8.9 percent in 1979.

Women of Hispanic origin were employed in blue-collar occupations to a greater extent than other women. Regardless of ethnicity, employed Hispanics

were more concentrated in low-paid, semi-skilled occupations than the overall work force. Although the large percentage of Hispanic women employed in clerical positions is similar to that of all women, their heavy concentration in operative jobs--dressmakers, assemblers, operators of machines and similar equipment--is strikingly unlike other women.

Although the 1979 earnings of Hispanic women ($9,590) were lower than those of all women employed year-round at full-time jobs, Hispanic women in professional occupations had mean earnings ($14,100) not significantly different from all white women ($14,259). Hispanic workers in these jobs were more likely to be of Cuban origin. These women had the highest educational attainment and closely resembled non-Hispanic women in their socioeconomic characteristics.

IV. IMPACT OF THE ECONOMY ON EMPLOYMENT

Like its OECD partners, the United States has experienced the serious economic problems of high inflation and unemployment. While unemployment continues to be a problem, inflation, as measured by the Consumer Price Index of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, is on the way down. The U.S. Government today believes that economic problems must be dealt with principally by the private sector, and is therefore attempting to provide an environment in which the forces of private initiative are encouraged.

Regardless of economic conditions, large numbers of women are in the labor force--working or looking for work. During the 1970's, women entered and reentered the labor force in unprecedented numbers, reflecting not only declining fertility rates and society's increasing acceptance of working mothers, but also a response to rapidly expanding employment opportunities. Employment in white-collar and service (except private household) occupations increased by 85 percent between 1972 and 1980; women accounted for more than 90 percent of the increase. In addition, women made up more than 65 percent of the total employment increase, with young women (25-34 years of age) accounting for about one-half of the total gain in employment among women. Not only have the numbers increased, the job titles held by women have proliferated to include not only clerical types, but doctors, lawyers, engineers, bus and truck drivers, construction workers, corporate managers, and members of the Armed Forces. Women are now in nearly all of approximately 400 occupations listed by the Bureau of the Census. However, the effectiveness of initiatives to further equal employment opportunities is more clearly illustrated by examining equity in education, employment, and pay.

V. THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EQUAL OPPORTUNITY INITIATIVES

Equity in education. The proportion of women 18 to 64 years of age completing secondary school has historically been higher than that of men. However, men completing secondary school are more likely than women to complete 4 or more years of college. (See tabulation below.) While the gap in the proportion of men and women completing high school has narrowed, the gap between those completing college has not narrowed significantly. However, an increasing proportion of women have entered and completed college, reflecting employers' increased stress on technical and formal knowledge.

Education of persons 18 to 64 in the civilian labor force

	4 or more years of college		4 years of high school (including 1 to 3 years of college)	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
March 1965...	9.9%	12.6%	53.4%	43.4%
March 1970...	10.7%	14.2%	59.6%	49.8%
March 1975...	14.0%	17.9%	63.1%	54.4%
March 1980...	16.6%	20.6%	65.9%	56.7%

As women move into the paid work force, they see that broader educational opportunities for women and girls are at the center of economic self-sufficiency.

Title IX has been effective in increasing the educational opportunities for women and girls. Several major aspects of education affected by this law include: enrollments in various programs, student services and activities, admissions and degrees in higher education institutions, employment of women and men in the education system, and athletics. Voluntary compliance with the law, particularly in higher education, has resulted in some significant improvements. For example, the enrollment of women in graduate and professional schools such as law and medicine has increased dramatically.

-- Women earned half of the master's degrees and one-third of all doctoral degrees awarded in 1980, up from two-fifths and one-sixth, respectively, in 1972.

-- The proportion of women enrolled in traditionally male vocational education courses increased from 5 percent to 11 percent between 1972 and 1978. In addition, females accounted for 20 percent of the membership of Future Farmers of America, which once admitted only males.

-- Women have made advances in high school interscholastic sports--7 percent to 35 percent between 1971 and 1981. In 1974, 60 colleges offered athletic scholarships to women; today 500 do. Women now receive 22 percent of all athletic scholarships.

-- However, there continues to be little progress in educational employment at high levels. Women comprised 13 percent of school principals in 1974 and only 14 percent in 1978. In 1981, women still held less than 1 percent of the approximately 16,000 district superintendent positions. The number of women heading colleges and universities increased by 48 percent between 1975 and 1980, from 148 to 219.

Although there has been little difference in the median years of schooling completed by women and men, their fields of training may differ. However, in the scientific fields, the dollar gap between women and men with comparable educational attainment remains. Women on average spend fewer years in the labor force than men, although their work outside the home has increased markedly since 1950. A girl born in 1970 can be expected to work about 22.9 years, compared with a girl born in 1950 who was forecast to work 15.1 years. Over the same period, men's projected lifetime labor force participation actually declined slightly from 41.5 years to 40.1 years. Participation rates of younger women are expected to become more like men's, especially in the middle working ages.

Equity in employment. Evidence of some easing in the occupational concentration of women can be derived from the fact that, although the majority (55 percent) of employed women were in clerical and service occupations at the beginning of the 1980's, a substantial number have made inroads into professional and technical jobs with higher status and earnings--as doctors, lawyers, and accountants. In 1970, 60 percent of all female professional and technical workers were in the more traditional fields of nursing and teaching below the college level; by 1981, this proportion had dropped to 50 percent. Most noticeably, women have been widening their occupational horizons by moving into managerial positions. Women in management numbered 3.2 million in 1981, more than doubling their 1970 employment level (1.1 million) and accounting for 7.4 percent of total female employment in 1981. Increases also have been evident for female blue-collar workers, particularly skilled craft and similar workers and nonfarm laborers. In 1981, these workers accounted for about 3 percent of female employment. Although smaller in number, this movement of women into nontypical job categories has the potential for changing the occupational and industrial distribution of women and men in the future.

Recent gains, however, reveal new risks. During economic downturns with employment cutbacks, seniority rules sanction "last hired, first fired" practices. The newness of women's employment gains make them vulnerable, despite equal opportunity measures and affirmative action on the part of employers. In addition, women's jobs are no longer generally recessionproof (less cyclically sensitive), as white-collar occupations become the dominant areas of employment. Nonetheless, with recessions still characterized by employment cutbacks in goods-producing industries--durable goods manufacturing and construction--it is men's jobs that are more at risk.

Moreover, with the growing need to increase productivity, microelectronics technology is moving automation from the factory into the office. Women working in electronic information handling and processing may be the most susceptible to change since those are the jobs in which women are in the majority. There is the potential not only to change the nature and content of these jobs, but also to displace workers. Although widespread labor displacement is not discernible at this time, increasing automation gradually may reflect a slowing of demand for certain categories of workers and employment cutbacks by attrition and increased part-time work.

Equity in earnings. Pay equity continues to be of major concern to women in the United States. The discrepancy between the average earnings of

women and men has not lessened over the past 2 decades. Some of the gap has been attributed to the large number of women entering the labor force, educational and training differences, women's more rapid turnover on the job and somewhat greater absence rates, and less on-the-job training given to women. Still, there remains an unexplained gap that some researchers and analysts attribute to individual and institutional discrimination. Allegations are increasingly made that work traditionally performed by women is undervalued and underpaid in comparison with work predominantly performed by men which is perhaps different in content but perceived to require the same or less educational preparation, experience, skill, and responsibility, and that this constitutes sex discrimination.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, charged with enforcement of Title VII, requested the National Academy of Sciences to determine through its Committee on Occupational Classification and Analysis whether appropriate job measurement procedures exist or can be developed to assess the worth of jobs. Responding to this request, the Committee proposed improvements in the design and implementation of current job evaluation plans and statistical adjustments to pay rates to estimate the effects on pay rates of the sexual, racial, and ethnic composition of job categories. 5/

The major source of the earnings gap is the concentration of women workers in jobs at the low end of the pay scale. More than 60 percent of all employed women work in clerical, service, and sales jobs. Even in manufacturing, women are concentrated in textiles, clothing, and electrical equipment manufacturing jobs where wages are lower than in many other industries. These lower paying entry level jobs, of a traditional nature, provide limited opportunity for advancement to higher paying jobs. Since the 1960's, there has been no significant improvement in the annual earnings of full-time year-round women workers compared with men's earnings.

Although the male-female earnings ratios vary considerably, women's earnings rarely approach parity with men's in the same major occupation groups. (The earnings gap in usual weekly earnings is generally smaller than that of annual income/earnings.) Information on median usual weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers indicates that overall women's paychecks were 65 percent of men's in 1981, a small improvement over 1979 when women's earnings were 63 percent of men's. Of the major occupation groups, farm women's weekly earnings most closely approached those of comparably employed men--82 percent. The earnings from farm work for both sexes, however, were the lowest of the reported major occupational categories. Even in professional occupations, where formal education and/or special licensing limit entry, women's pay was only 72 percent of men's, overall. Similarly, women clerical workers as a group took home only

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5/ Women, Work, and Wages: Equal Pay for Jobs of Equal Value, Donald J. Trieman and Heidi I. Hartmann (eds.). Committee on Occupational Classification and Analysis, Assembly of Behavioral and Social Sciences, National Research Council, 1981.

67 percent of the pay that men earned. This reflects the fact that women are more likely than men to be in the lowest paying occupations within each major occupation group.

More importantly, the problem of the lack of promotion or advancement to higher paying jobs within an occupation group continues to affect women. Traditionally female occupations such as nursing, health technician, teaching, and secretarial work are not valued as a means of gaining experience and moving to management positions. Thus, most women are crowded into a limited number of occupations within a major occupation group, with little opportunity for advancement to higher paying jobs.

The fact that women in the labor force have not attained earnings parity with men in similar jobs places an added drain on head-of-household women who must support themselves and perhaps their children and other dependents as well. In addition, many wives help to support their families. More than half the wives of working husbands are also in the labor force. Their earnings supplement those of their husbands and enable their families to maintain, and in some cases to improve, their living standards.

VI. CONCLUSION

During the past 20 years the U.S. Government has established the legal procedures to combat inequities in educational opportunities and employment-related practices, but some problems persist. Despite improvement, minority women continue to lag behind their white counterparts in most socioeconomic areas. For all women workers, the problems of occupational segregation and its resultant lower earnings for women persist. In the past, the Women's Bureau, in conjunction with nongovernmental organizations (NGO's), has developed a wide variety of demonstration projects to test the validity of methods and means of assisting women supporting themselves and their families to become self-sufficient. These projects, including those of the NGO's, are fully described in a report prepared by the Women's Bureau for the World Conference on the U.N. Decade for Women 1976-1985: Employment Goals of the World Plan of Action: Developments and Issues in the United States.

For the future, equality of opportunity for women in the workplace is dependent upon continued reduction of the occupational segregation of women. This segregation keeps most women crowded into a limited number of occupations with low pay and little room for advancement. As the structure of the nation's work force shifts in response to technological innovations and a changing world market for U.S. goods and services, imbalances appear--skill shortages in some sectors, worker displacement in others. Higher educational achievement and placement flexibility are becoming more essential and may well determine a worker's future. The prospect of a changing labor market offers an opportunity for those women who are prepared, along with men, to move into new and different jobs. The result can be the eventual elimination of women's occupational isolation and earnings inequities.

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* Labor force data as of the January 1982 issue of Employment and Earnings, U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 1

Employed Persons, Annual Averages, 1950-1981

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

(Numbers in thousands)

Year	Average number employed		Change from preceding year			
			Number		Percent	
	Total	Women	Total	Women	Total	Women
1981	98,313	42,145	1,043	862	1.1	2.1
1980	97,270	41,283	325	837	.3	2.1
1979	96,945	40,446	2,572	1,564	2.7	4.0
1978	94,373	38,882	3,827	2,197	4.2	6.0
1977	90,546	36,685	3,061	1,590	3.5	4.5
1976	87,485	35,095	2,702	1,542	3.2	4.6
1975	84,783	33,553	-1,153	136	-1.4	.4
1974	85,936	33,417	1,527	971	1.8	3.0
1973	84,409	32,446	2,707	1,374	3.3	4.4
1972	81,702	31,072	2,582	1,197	3.3	4.0
1971	79,120	29,875	493	208	.6	.7
1970	78,627	29,667	725	583	.9	2.0
1969	77,902	29,084	1,982	1,277	2.6	4.6
1968	75,920	27,807	1,548	914	2.1	3.4
1967	74,372	26,893	1,477	917	2.0	3.5
1966	72,895	25,976	1,807	1,228	2.5	5.0
1965	71,088	24,748	1,783	917	2.6	3.8
1964	69,305	23,831	1,543	726	2.3	3.1
1963	67,762	23,105	1,060	580	1.6	2.6
1962	66,702	22,525	956	435	1.5	2.0
1961	65,746	22,090	-32	216	.0	1.0
1960	65,778	21,874	1,148	710	1.8	3.4
1959	64,630	21,164	1,594	551	2.5	2.7
1958	63,036	20,613	-1,035	-101	-1.6	-.5
1957	64,071	20,714	269	292	.4	1.4
1956	63,802	20,422	1,631	872	2.6	4.5
1955	62,171	19,550	2,061	1,060	3.4	5.7
1954	60,110	18,490	-1,071	-260	-1.8	-1.4
1953	61,181	18,750	927	180	1.5	1.0
1952	60,254	18,570	292	388	.5	2.1
1951	59,962	18,182	1,042	842	1.8	4.9
1950	58,920	17,340	1,271	617	2.2	3.7

Source: U.S. Departments of Labor and Health, Education and Welfare, "Employment and Training Report of the President," 1979 and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," January 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982.

Table 2

Women in the Labor Force, 1950-1981

(Women 16 years of age and over)

Year	Total women (in thousands)	Women in labor force as a percent of	
		Total labor force	All women 16 years of age and over
1981	45,760	43.0	52.2
1980	44,574	42.6	51.6
1979	43,391	42.2	51.0
1978	41,878	41.7	50.0
1977	39,952	41.0	48.4
1976	38,414	40.5	47.3
1975	36,998	39.9	46.3
1974	35,825	39.4	45.6
1973	34,510	38.9	44.7
1972	33,277	38.5	43.9
1971	32,091	38.2	43.3
1970	31,520	38.1	43.3
1969	30,512	37.8	42.7
1968	29,204	37.1	41.6
1967	28,360	36.7	41.1
1966	27,299	36.0	40.3
1965	26,200	35.2	39.3
1964	25,412	34.8	38.7
1963	24,704	34.4	38.3
1962	24,014	34.0	37.9
1961	23,806	33.8	38.1
1960	23,240	33.4	37.7
1959	22,483	32.9	37.1
1958	22,118	32.7	37.1
1957	21,732	32.5	36.9
1956	21,461	32.2	36.9
1955	20,548	31.6	35.7
1954	19,678	30.9	34.6
1953	19,382	30.8	34.4
1952	19,269	31.0	34.7
1951	19,016	30.7	34.6
1950	18,389	29.6	33.8

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1978" and "Employment and Earnings," January 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982.

Table 3

Labor Force Participation Rates of Women, by Age Group, 1950-1981

Year	All women 16 years and over	16 and 17 years	18 and 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 to 54 years	55 to 64 years	65 years and over
1981	52.2	42.6	61.1	69.7	66.7	66.8	61.1	41.5	8.1
1980	51.6	43.8	62.1	69.0	65.4	65.5	59.9	41.5	8.1
1979	51.0	45.8	62.9	69.1	63.8	63.6	58.4	41.9	8.3
1978	50.0	45.5	62.1	68.3	62.1	61.6	57.1	41.4	8.4
1977	48.4	42.2	60.5	66.5	59.5	59.6	55.8	41.0	8.1
1976	47.3	40.7	59.0	65.0	57.1	57.8	55.0	41.1	8.2
1975	46.3	40.2	58.1	64.1	54.6	55.8	54.6	41.0	8.3
1974	45.6	40.4	58.1	63.0	52.4	54.7	54.6	40.7	8.2
1973	44.7	39.1	56.9	61.1	50.1	53.3	53.7	41.1	8.9
1972	43.9	36.6	55.5	59.0	47.6	52.0	53.9	42.1	9.3
1971	43.3	34.3	53.1	57.7	45.5	51.6	54.3	42.9	9.5
1970	43.3	34.9	53.6	57.7	45.0	51.1	54.4	43.0	9.7
1969	42.7	33.7	53.4	56.7	43.7	49.9	53.8	43.1	9.9
1968	41.6	31.7	52.4	54.5	42.6	48.9	52.3	42.4	9.6
1967	41.1	31.0	52.2	53.3	41.9	48.1	51.8	42.0	9.6
1966	40.3	30.7	52.0	51.4	39.8	46.9	51.7	41.8	9.6
1965	39.3	27.7	49.3	49.9	38.5	46.1	50.9	41.1	10.0
1964	38.7	27.4	49.2	49.4	37.2	45.0	51.4	40.2	10.1
1963	38.3	27.1	50.5	47.5	37.1	44.9	50.6	39.7	9.6
1962	37.9	27.1	50.8	47.3	36.3	44.1	50.0	38.7	9.9
1961	38.1	28.5	51.0	47.0	36.4	43.8	50.1	37.9	10.7
1960	37.7	29.1	50.9	46.1	36.0	43.4	49.8	37.2	10.8
1959	37.1	28.8	48.9	45.1	35.3	43.3	49.0	36.6	10.2
1958	37.1	28.1	50.8	46.3	35.6	43.4	47.8	35.2	10.3
1957	36.9	31.1	51.4	45.9	35.6	43.3	46.5	34.5	10.5
1956	36.9	32.8	51.9	46.3	35.4	43.1	45.5	34.9	10.8
1955	35.7	32.9	50.9	45.9	34.9	41.6	43.8	32.5	10.6
1954	34.6	28.7	50.4	45.1	34.4	41.2	41.1	30.1	9.3
1953	34.4	31.0	50.7	44.3	34.0	41.3	40.4	29.1	10.0
1952	34.7	33.4	51.2	44.7	35.4	40.4	40.1	28.7	9.1
1951	34.6	32.2	52.5	46.5	35.4	39.8	39.6	27.6	8.9
1950	33.8	30.1	51.3	46.0	34.0	39.1	37.9	27.0	9.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1978" and "Employment and Earnings " January 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982.

Table 4

Civilian Labor Force, 1975 and 1979 and Projected 1985 and 1990

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Sex	Actual		Projected					
			High growth		Intermediate growth		Low growth	
	1975	1979	1985	1990	1985	1990	1985	1990
	Numbers (in thousands)							
Total	92,613	102,908	118,252	128,123	114,985	122,375	111,706	117,394
Men	55,615	59,517	64,825	68,174	63,600	65,880	62,458	63,888
Women	36,998	43,391	53,427	59,949	51,385	56,495	49,248	53,506
	Civilian labor force participation rate							
Total	61.2	63.7	68.4	71.1	66.5	67.9	64.6	65.2
Men	79.7	77.9	79.2	79.9	77.7	77.2	76.3	74.9
Women	46.3	51.0	58.7	63.2	56.5	59.6	54.1	56.4

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Labor Force Projections to 1990: Three Possible Paths," Monthly Labor Review, August 1981.

Table 5

Women's Labor Force Participation Rates, by Marital Status, March 1950, 1960, 1970, 1978, and 1980

Marital Status	1980	1978	1970	1960	1950
Total	51.1	49.1	42.6	34.8	31.4
Single	61.5	60.5	53.0	44.1	50.5
Married, husband present	50.1	47.6	40.8	30.5	23.8
Married, husband absent	59.4	57.0	52.1	51.8	47.4
Widowed	22.5	22.4	26.4	29.8	36.0
Divorced	74.5	74.0	71.5	71.6	

Note: Data for 1950 and 1960 are for persons 14 years of age and over; data for 1970 and later are for persons 16 years of age and over.

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Report P-50, No. 29, and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Special Labor Force Reports 13 and 130, and unpublished data.

Table 6

Married-Couple Families, by Number of Earners, March 1981, and Median Family Income in 1980

Number of earners in family, March 1981	Number of families (in thousands)	Percent of total	Median family income 1980
Total	49,316	100.0	$ 23,263
No earners	5,903	12.0	10,187
One earner	13,900	28.2	19,368
Husband only	11,621	23.6	20,472
Wife only	1,707	3.5	13,612
Other relative only	573	1.2	16,148
Two or more earners	29,513	59.8	28,025
Husband and wife earners	25,557	51.8	27,745
Husband an earner, wife nonearner	3,380	6.9	31,031
Husband nonearner	576	1.2	22,684

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, News Release No. USDL 81-522, November 15, 1981.

Table 7

Median Family Income, by Type of Family, March, Selected Years, 1960-1979

Type of family	1979	1978	1977	1976	1975	1974	1973	1972	1971	1970	1965	1960
	Median income											
All families	$19,661	$17,640	$16,009	$14,958	$13,719	$12,836	$12,051	$11,115	$10,285	$ 9,067	$6,882	$5,620
Married-couple families	21,503	19,340	17,616	16,203	14,867	13,847	13,028	11,902	10,990	10,516	7,265	5,873
Female householder no husband present	9,927	8,537	7,765	7,211	6,844	6,413	5,797	5,341	5,114	5,093	3,532	2,968
Other families with male head	16,867	15,966	14,518	12,860	12,995	11,737	10,742	10,305	8,722	9,012	6,148	4,860
	Comparison of family income relative to all families (percent)											
All families	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Married-couple families	109.4	109.6	110.0	108.3	108.4	107.9	108.1	107.1	106.9	106.6	105.6	104.5
Female householder, no husband present	50.5	48.4	48.5	48.2	49.9	50.0	48.1	48.1	49.7	51.6	51.3	52.8
Other families with male head	85.8	90.5	90.7	86.0	94.7	91.4	89.1	92.7	84.8	91.3	89.3	86.5

Source: Money Income of Families and Persons in the United States, Current Population Reports, P-60, Nos. 37, 80, 85, 90, 101, 105, 114, 118, 120, 129, U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

Table 8

Women as a Percent of Total Employment, by Major Occupation Group, Annual Averages for Selected Years, 1960-1981

Occupation Group	1981	1980	1979	1978	1977	1975	1970	1960
	Annual Average Percent							
Total Employed	42.9	42.4	41.7	41.2	40.5	39.6	37.7	33.3
Professional and technical workers	44.7	44.3	43.3	42.7	42.6	41.3	38.6	36.2
Managers and administrators (except farm)	27.4	26.1	24.6	23.4	22.3	19.4	15.9	15.6
Sales workers	45.4	45.3	45.1	44.8	43.3	42.5	43.1	39.8
Clerical workers	80.5	80.1	80.3	79.6	78.9	77.8	74.6	67.8
Craft and kindred workers	6.3	6.0	5.7	5.6	5.0	4.6	3.3	2.6
Operatives, except transport	39.8	40.1	39.9	39.7	39.6	38.4	30.9	27.9
Transport equipment operatives	8.9	8.0	8.1	7.3	6.8	5.7	30.9	27.9
Nonfarm laborers	11.5	11.6	11.3	10.4	9.4	8.6	3.7	2.3
Private household workers	96.5	97.5	97.6	97.7	97.0	97.4	97.4	98.5
Other service workers	59.3	58.9	59.2	59.1	58.3	58.3	60.2	53.5
Farmers and farm managers	11.3	10.6	9.6	8.9	6.4	6.4	4.6	3.9
Farm laborers and supervisors	25.7	27.0	27.7	28.6	29.4	26.7	32.4	35.3

Source: U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Employment and Training Report of the President," 1979 and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," January 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982.

Table 9

Percent Distribution of Employed Women, by Major Occupation Group, Annual Averages for Selected Years, 1960-1981

Occupation Group	1981	1980	1979	1978	1977	1975	1970	1960
	Annual Average							
Total employed (in thousands)	42,145	41,283	40,446	38,882	36,685	33,553	29,667	21,874
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional and technical workers	17.0	16.8	16.1	15.6	15.9	15.7	14.5	12.4
Managers and administrators (except farm)	7.4	6.9	6.4	6.1	5.9	5.2	4.5	5.0
Sales workers	6.8	6.8	6.9	6.9	6.8	6.9	7.0	7.7
Clerical workers	34.7	35.1	35.0	34.6	34.7	35.1	34.5	30.3
Craft and kindred workers	1.9	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.6	1.5	{1.1	{1.0
Operatives, except transport	9.7	10.0	10.8	11.1	11.2	11.0		
Transport equipment operatives	.7	.7	.7	.7	.6	.5	14.5	15.2
Nonfarm laborers	1.2	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.1	.5	.4
Private household workers	2.3	2.5	2.6	2.9	3.1	3.4	5.1	8.9
Other service workers	17.1	17.0	17.2	17.7	17.9	18.2	16.5	14.8
Farmers and farm managers	.4	.4	.3	.3	.3	.3	.3	.5
Farm laborers and supervisors	.8	.8	.9	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.5	3.2

Source: U.S. Departments of Labor and U.S. Departments of Health, Education, and Welfare, "Employment and Training Report of the President," 1979 and U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," January 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982.

Table 10

Women Employees on Nonagricultural Payrolls, by Industry Division, 1959-1980

(In thousands)

Year	Total	Mining	Contract construction	Manufacturing			Transportation and public utilities	Wholesale and retail trade			Finance insurance and real estate	Service	Government		
				Total	Durable	Nondurable		Total	Wholesale	Retail			Total	Federal	State and local
1959	-------	-----	-------	4,159	1,471	2,688	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
1960	-------	36	-------	4,372	1,681	2,691	-----	4,295	681	3,615	1,341	-----	-----	-----	-----
1961	-------	35	-------	4,292	1,642	2,651	-----	4,267	668	3,599	1,368	-----	-----	-----	-----
1962	-------	35	-------	4,474	1,749	2,726	-----	4,355	676	3,679	1,398	-----	-----	-----	-----
1963	-------	35	-------	4,482	1,746	2,736	-----	4,428	684	3,744	1,429	-----	-----	-----	-----
1964	19,672	34	146	4,537	1,756	2,782	723	4,618	703	3,915	1,470	4,435	3,718	530	3,188
1965	20,671	34	146	4,768	1,889	2,879	748	4,881	729	4,152	1,502	4,622	3,970	542	3,427
1966	22,180	34	150	5,214	2,182	3,032	786	5,124	768	4,356	1,555	4,942	4,375	610	3,766
1967	23,284	35	152	5,353	2,277	3,076	835	5,297	790	4,507	1,630	5,279	4,703	674	4,030
1968	24,395	36	157	5,490	2,338	3,152	860	5,526	814	4,713	1,715	5,646	4,965	710	4,256
1969	25,568	37	166	5,667	2,446	3,221	911	5,841	858	4,983	1,827	6,009	5,111	723	4,388
1970	26,060	37	177	5,436	2,278	3,158	953	5,997	877	5,120	1,907	6,222	5,331	723	4,608
1971	26,301	37	188	5,191	2,111	3,080	943	6,095	871	5,225	1,960	6,395	5,491	715	4,776
1972	27,404	37	205	5,411	2,259	3,152	943	6,342	899	5,443	2,033	6,666	5,767	747	5,020
1973	28,924	40	221	5,803	2,547	3,256	975	6,712	956	5,756	2,141	7,020	6,012	780	5,232
1974	30,026	45	234	5,819	2,606	3,213	1,000	7,003	1,004	5,999	2,246	7,410	6,270	798	5,472
1975	30,157	52	231	5,259	2,274	2,985	982	7,053	1,002	6,052	2,293	7,737	6,550	805	5,745
1976	31,498	58	245	5,590	2,446	3,144	986	7,404	1,039	6,365	2,377	8,184	6,656	808	5,848
1977	32,994	65	268	5,816	2,612	3,204	1,036	7,677	1,079	6,597	2,523	8,648	6,961	859	6,102
1978	34,996	75	332	6,172	2,868	3,305	1,117	8,218	1,216	7,002	2,687	9,242	7,151	869	6,281
1979	36,952	91	372	6,464	3,083	3,381	1,221	8,666	1,311	7,355	2,886	9,910	7,331	873	6,458
1980	38,241	104	384	6,368	3,026	3,341	1,293	8,987	1,367	7,620	3,034	10,381	7,691	908	6,784

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics 1978," Employment and Earnings, March 1979, 1980 and 1981.

Table 11

Women as Percent of Total Employment inSelected Occupations, 1974-1980

(Numbers in thousands)

Occupation	1980		1979		1978		1977		1976		1975		1974		Percent change 1979-1980
	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as Percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	Total employment	Women as percent of total	
Professional and technical	15,611	44.1	15,050	43.1	14,245	42.7	13,692	42.6	13,329	42.0	12,748	41.3	12,138	40.5	31.4
Accountants	1,047	36.2	1,045	32.9	975	30.1	868	27.5	856	26.9	782	24.6	803	23.7	97.4
Computer specialists	584	25.7	534	26.0	428	23.1	371	23.2	387	19.1	363	21.2	311	19.0	94.8
Industrial engineers	245	8.6	245	7.1	206	8.7	214	7.0	201	4.5	187	2.7	193	(1/)	260.0
Lawyers and judges	547	12.8	499	12.4	499	9.4	462	9.5	413	9.2	392	7.1	359	7.0	150.0
Librarians	182	85.2	188	80.9	187	84.5	191	83.4	183	82.4	180	81.1	N.A.	N.A.	6.2
Life and physical scientists	301	20.3	280	18.9	273	17.9	275	15.6	282	12.1	277	14.4	246	15.9	52.5
Physicians	426	13.4	431	10.7	424	11.3	403	11.2	368	12.8	354	13.0	346	9.8	23.9
Registered nurses	1,302	96.5	1,223	96.8	1,112	96.7	999	96.6	949	96.6	935	97.0	904	98.0	38.5
Elementary teachers	1,383	83.7	1,374	84.3	1,304	84.0	1,313	84.2	1,383	84.8	1,332	85.4	1,297	84.3	1.7
Secondary teachers	1,243	52.1	1,213	50.7	1,154	51.6	1,157	51.2	1,188	50.5	1,184	49.2	1,186	48.3	11.1
Surveyors	89	3.4	85	3.5	82	2.4	68	1.5	69	1.4	70	--	N.A.	N.A.	--
Airplane pilots	76	--	72	--	69	1.4	64	--	64	--	60	--	N.A.	N.A.	--
Managers and administrators	10,919	26.1	10,516	24.6	10,105	23.4	9,662	22.3	9,315	20.8	8,891	19.4	8,941	18.5	65.2
Bank officials and financial managers	643	33.6	6	31.6	573	30.4	543	27.3	546	24.7	518	23.6	510	21.4	77.0
School administrators (elementary and secondary)	298	38.6	299	37.5	275	35.6	265	36.2	282	32.6	263	28.1	352	27.8	
Clerical workers	18,185	80.1	17,613	80.3	16,904	79.6	16,106	78.7	15,558	78.7	15,128	77.8	15,043	77.6	23.2
Typists	1,023	96.9	1,020	96.7	1,044	96.6	1,006	96.3	983	96.7	1,025	96.6	1,038	96.2	.1
Craft and kindred workers	12,529	6.0	12,880	5.7	12,386	5.6	11,881	5.0	11,278	4.8	10,972	4.6	11,477	4.5	48.9
Carpenters	1,185	1.5	1,276	1.3	1,253	1.0	1,171	.9	1,021	.7	988	.6	1,073	(1/)	200.0
Painters, construction and maintenance	469	6.0	483	5.0	484	5.2	461	3.3	413	2.9	420	3.8	456	(1/)	75.0
Machinists and job setters	658	4.0	642	3.3	591	3.0	576	2.6	570	2.9	557	2.5	558	(1/)	89.7
Auto mechanics	1,012	.6	1,272	.6	1,209	.6	1,161	.9	1,124	.6	1,102	.5	1,04.	(1/)	--
Printing craft workers	409	22.7	455	22.2	417	21.8	389	22.4	380	19.2	375	17.6	386	18.1	50.0
Telephone installers and repairers	309	8.7	302	9.9	297	6.7	279	5.0	282	5.0	314	4.8	34?	4.9	80.0
Operatives, including transport	13,814	32.0	14,521	32.0	14,416	31.7	13,830	31.4	13,356	31.2	12,856	30.2	13,919	31.1	13.8
Meat cutters and butchers, manufacturing	97	32.0	89	31.5	114	28.9	88	35.2	87	29.9	100	27.0	N.A.	N.A.	14.8
Punch and stamping press operatives	127	34.6	158	29.1	156	30.1	152	36.2	155	32.9	130	27.7	170	30.6	22.2
Sewers and stitchers	788	95.7	810	95.3	814	94.8	820	95.2	812	95.9	803	95.8	858	95.8	2.0
Bus drivers	356	44.9	358	45.5	337	45.1	339	42.2	332	39.5	310	37.7	265	37.4	36.8
Truck drivers	1,844	2.2	1,965	2.1	1,923	1.9	1,898	1.3	1,741	1.2	1,694	1.1	1,752	(1/)	115.8
Service workers	12,958	62.0	12,834	62.4	12,839	62.6	12,392	62.0	12,005	61.5	11,657	62.3	11,373	62.9	10.6
Cleaners and servants	491	96.8	485	97.3	530	97.0	574	96.5	553	97.1	599	97.3	588	97.6	22.5
Waiters	1,416	89.1	1,363	89.4	1,383	90.5	1,310	90.4	1,259	90.7	1,183	91.1	1,182	91.8	17.1
Nursing aides, orderlies	1,093	87.5	1,024	87.5	1,037	87.0	1,008	86.3	1,002	86.8	1,001	85.8	959	86.9	11.3
Hairdressers and cosmetologists	565	88.3	575	89.2	542	89.1	526	88.2	534	88.0	504	90.5	498	92.4	9.4
Protective service	1,396	9.5	1,406	8.8	1,358	8.5	1,324	7.9	1,302	6.3	1,290	6.3	1,254	6.4	64.2

1/Percent not shown where employment estimate is less than 35,000.

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Employment and Earnings," June 1975 and January 1976, 1977, 1978, 1979, 1980, and 1981.

Table 12

Comparison of Median Earnings of Year-Round Full-Time Workers, by Sex, 1955-1981

Year	(1) Median earnings Women	(2) Median earnings Men	(3) Earnings gap in dollars	(4) Women's earnings as a percent of men's	(5) Percent men's earnings exceeded women's	(6) Earnings gap in constant 1967 dollars
1981	$12,001	$20,260	$8,259	59.2	68.8	$3,032
1980	11,197	18,612	7,415	60.2	66.2	3,004
1979	10,151	17,014	6,863	59.7	67.6	3,157
1978	9,350	15,730	6,380	59.4	68.2	3,267
1977	8,618	14,626	6,008	58.9	69.7	3,310
1976	8,099	13,455	5,356	60.2	66.1	3,141
1975	7,504	12,758	5,254	58.8	70.0	3,259
1974	6,772	11,835	5,063	57.2	74.8	3,433
1973	6,335	11,186	4,851	56.6	76.6	3,649
1972	5,903	10,202	4,299	57.9	72.8	3,435
1971	5,593	9,399	3,806	59.5	68.0	3,136
1970	5,323	8,966	3,643	59.4	68.4	3,133
1969	4,977	8,227	3,250	60.5	65.3	2,961
1968	4,457	7,664	3,207	58.2	72.0	3,079
1967	4,150	7,182	3,032	57.8	73.1	3,032
1966	3,973	6,848	2,875	58.0	72.4	2,958
1965	3,823	6,375	2,552	60.0	66.8	2,700
1964	3,690	6,195	2,505	59.6	67.9	2,696
1963	3,561	5,978	2,417	59.6	67.9	2,637
1962	3,446	5,974	2,528	59.5	73.4	2,790
1961	3,351	5,644	2,293	59.4	68.4	2,559
1960	3,293	5,317	2,124	60.8	64.5	2,394
1959	3,193	5,209	2,016	61.3	63.1	2,308
1958	3,102	4,927	1,825	63.0	58.8	2,108
1957	3,008	4,713	1,705	63.8	56.7	2,023
1956	2,827	4,466	1,639	63.3	58.0	2,014
1955	2,719	4,252	1,533	63.9	56.4	1,911

Notes: For 1967-81, data include wage and salary income and earnings from self-employment; for 1955-66, data include wage and salary income only. For 1979-81, data are for persons 15 years of age and over; earlier data are for persons 14 years of age and over.

Column 3 = column 2 minus column 1.
Column 4 = column 1 divided by column 2.
Column 5 = column 3 divided by column 1.
Column 6 = column 3 divided by the (annual) Consumer Price Index (1967 = $1.00).

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: "Money Income of Families and Persons in the United States," Current Population Reports, 1957 to 1980, and 1981 advance report.

Table 13

Median Usual Weekly Earnings of Full-Time Wage and Salary Workers, by Sex and Occupation Group, Third Quarter 1981

(Workers 16 years of age and over)

Occupation group	Women	Men	Women's earnings as percent of men's
All occupations	$225	$346	65
Professional and technical workers	323	436	74
Managers and administrators (except farm)	285	476	60
Sales workers	194	371	52
Clerical workers	221	326	68
Craft and kindred workers	238	367	65
Operatives (except transport)	187	298	63
Transport equipment operatives	239	315	76
Nonfarm laborers	191	242	80
Service workers	167	233	72
Farm workers	141	180	78

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, News Release No. USDL 81-551, December 8, 1981.

Table 14

Median Income, by Educational Attainment, by Sex, March 1970-1979

(Persons 25 years of age and over)

Educational attainment		1979	1978	1977	1976	1975	1974	1973	1972	1971	1970
						Women					
Total median income		$4,858	$4,636	$4,556	$4,143	$3,913	$3,605	$3,268	$3,031	$2,844	$2,595
Elementary school:	Less than 8 years	2,886	2,709	2,524	2,423	2,252	2,132	1,873	1,664	1,503	1,401
	8 years	3,373	3,113	3,041	2,854	2,641	2,417	2,220	2,038	1,883	1,803
High school:	1 to 3 years	3,947	3,701	3,679	3,423	3,308	3,210	2,836	2,692	2,581	2,387
	4 years	5,325	5,221	5,276	4,925	4,549	4,209	3,970	3,757	3,594	3,400
College:	1 to 3 years	6,505	6,204	6,239	5,502	5,403	4,912	4,564	4,122	3,732	3,722
	4 years or more	9,928	9,273	9,095	8,540	8,327	7,395	7,402	6,897	6,620	6,175
						Men					
Total median income		$14,622	$13,377	$12,375	$11,562	$10,878	$10,307	$9,800	$8,989	$8,242	$7,891
Elementary school:	Less than 8 years	5,903	5,641	5,402	4,987	4,665	4,551	4,463	4,150	3,883	3,624
	8 years	8,085	7,604	7,155	6,959	6,642	6,621	6,371	5,786	5,469	5,410
High school:	1 to 3 years	11,000	10,419	10,023	9,536	8,825	9,017	8,622	7,976	7,570	7,335
	4 years	15,522	14,341	13,207	12,393	11,834	11,290	10,832	9,905	9,088	8,772
College:	1 to 3 years	16,896	15,459	14,247	13,347	13,060	12,322	11,670	10,971	10,303	9,879
	4 years or more	21,538	20,151	18,530	17,323	16,682	15,067	14,704	14,125	13,126	12,681

Source: U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P60 No. 80, 85, 90, 97, 101, 105, 114, 118, 123, and 129.

Table 15

Women Apprentices, 1973-1979

Year	Apprentices		Women as percent of total
	Women	Total	
1979	13,343	323,866	4.1
1978	8,997	290,224	3.1
1977	5,777	262,586	2.2
1976	4,334	254,968	1.7
1975	3,198	266,477	1.2
1974	2,619	291,049	.9
1973	1,986	283,774	.7

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, Bulletin 80-5 and unpublished data.

Table 16

Enrollment in Institutions of Higher Education,
by Sex, Fall 1963-1979

Year	Total enrollment			First professional degree students		
	Women	Men	Women as percent of total	Women	Men	Women as percent of total
1979	5,966,575	5,740,551	51.0	70,626	194,367	26.7
1978	5,684,667	5,678,364	50.0	65,021	191,570	25.3
1977	5,496,771	5,789,016	48.7	59,906	191,451	23.8
1976	5,201,309	5,810,828	47.2	54,482	189,810	22.3
1975	5,035,862	6,148,997	45.0	N.A.	N.A	N.A.
1974	4,601,300	5,622,429	45.0	41,373	194,079	17.6
1973	4,231,071	5,371,052	44.1	32,693	186,297	14.9
1972	3,976,103	5,238,757	43.1	23,216	183,443	11.2
1971	3,741,640	5,207,004	41.8	14,762	158,649	8.5
1970	3,537,245	5,043,642	41.2	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1969	3,258,459	4,746,201	40.7	15,811	148,926	9.6
1968	3,035,442	4,477,649	40.4	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1967	2,778,948	4,132,800	40.2	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1966	2,533,656	3,856,216	39.7	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1965	2,290,844	3,630,020	38.7	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1964	2,031,307	3,248,713	38.5	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
1963	1,810,650	2,955,217	38.0	19,023	132,219	12.6

Source: "Digest of Education Statistics," 1963 through 1979. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics and "Fall Enrollment in Higher Education, 1979" U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics.

Table 17

Earned Degrees Conferred by Type of Degree and Sex of Recipient, Selected Years, 1966-1980

Year	Bachelor's degrees			First professional degrees			Master's degrees			Doctor's degrees		
	Women	Men	Women as percent of total	Women	Men	Women as percent of total	Women	Men	Women as percent of total	Women	Men	Women as percent of total
1966	223,066	301,051	42.6	1,425	30,071	4.5	47,588	93,184	33.8	2,118	16,121	11.6
1968	274,607	357,682	43.4	1,596	32,825	4.6	63,230	113,519	35.8	2,906	20,183	12.6
1970	341,219	451,097	43.1	1,841	33,077	5.3	82,667	125,624	39.7	3,976	25,890	13.3
1972	386,683	500,590	43.6	2,688	40,723	6.2	102,083	149,550	40.6	5,273	28,090	15.8
1976	420,821	504,925	45.8	9,757	52,892	15.6	144,523	167,248	46.4	7,797	26,267	22.9
1977	424,004	495,545	46.1	11,985	52,374	18.6	149,381	167,783	47.1	8,090	25,142	24.3
1978	439,135	491,066	47.2	14,411	52,553	21.5	151,108	161,708	48.3	8,487	23,669	26.4
1979-1980	473,417	455,806	49.0	17,415	52,716	24.8	147,332	150,749	49.4	9,672	22,943	29.7

Source: "Digest of Education Statistics," 1966 through 1979 and Earned Degrees Conferred, 1977-78--Preliminary Summary. U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics.

Table 18

Unemployment Rates of Women and Men,
Annual Averages, 1950-1981

(Persons 16 years of age and over)

Year	Number of women unemployed (in thousands)	Percent of labor force unemployed		
		Both sexes	Women	Men
1981	3,615	7.6	7.9	7.4
1980	3,291	7.1	7.4	7.7
1979	2,945	5.8	6.8	5.1
1978	2,996	6.0	7.2	5.2
1977	3,267	7.0	8.2	6.2
1976	3,320	7.7	3.6	7.0
1975	3,445	8.5	9.3	7.9
1974	2,408	5.6	6.7	4.8
1973	2,064	4.9	6.0	4.1
1972	2,205	5.6	6.6	4.9
1971	2,217	5.9	6.9	5.3
1970	1,853	4.9	5.9	4.4
1969	1,428	3.5	4.7	2.8
1968	1,397	3.6	4.8	2.9
1967	1,468	3.8	5.2	3.1
1966	1,324	3.8	4.8	3.2
1965	1,452	4.5	5.5	4.0
1964	1,581	5.2	6.2	4.6
1963	1,598	5.7	6.5	5.2
1962	1,488	5.5	6.2	5.2
1961	1,717	6.7	7.2	6.4
1960	1,366	5.5	5.9	5.4
1959	1,320	5.5	5.9	5.3
1958	1,504	6.8	6.8	6.8
1957	1,018	4.3	4.7	4.1
1956	1,039	4.1	4.8	3.8
1955	998	4.4	4.9	4.2
1954	1,188	5.5	6.0	5.3
1953	632	2.9	3.3	2.8
1952	698	3.0	3.6	2.8
1951	834	3.3	4.4	2.8
1950	1,049	5.3	5.7	5.1

Source: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Handbook of Labor Statistics," 1978, and "Employment and Earnings," January 1979, 1980, 1981, and 1982.

APPENDIX B--REFERENCE LIST

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